



Mu'tah University
Deanship of Graduate Studies

**The Effect of Using Tape-Recorder on English
Language Students' Achievement at Mu'tah
University**

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Dedication

To the one who helped and encouraged me to continue this thesis and gave a lot without expecting anything in return, my husband. To my parents who sacrificed a lot to help me continue my education. To my daughter, brothers and sisters, I dedicate this work.

Khitam AL-Qudah

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Khitam AL-Qudah

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Abstract

The Effect of Using Tape-Recorder on English Language Students' achievement at Mu'tah University

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Mu'tah University, 2010**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of using tape-recorder on the second year English language students' achievement at Mu'tah University during the second semester 2009/2010. To achieve the purpose of the study, a pre/post comprehension test with pronunciation components were constructed to measure students' achievement . The sample of the study consisted of all sophomore English language and literature male and female students who are registered in the pronunciation course whom number was (120) male and female students who were selected intentionally during the second semester 2009\2010.

The subjects of the study were distributed into two groups. The experimental group was taught pronunciation by using the tape-recorder while the control group was taught pronunciation by traditional method. The subjects were (30) male students for the experimental group and (30) male students for the control group, while the female students for the experimental and control group were (30) for each, those subjects were distributed into two purposefully selected sections at Mu'tah University.

Descriptive statistical methods were used (means and standard deviation) for pre and post pronunciation test to experimental and control groups. Comparison statistical methods were used (Two Way ANOVA) analysis of variance to make a comparison between the control and the experimental group and the gender variable (male and female).

The findings of the study indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the post test between the control group and the experimental group in favor of the experimental group; there was a statistically significant difference in the students' achievement due to gender in favor of females.

The researcher proposed some recommendations to enhance the effect of using tape-recorder on students' pronunciation such as conducting further researches on other population and for a longer time.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Theoretical background of the study

Nowadays, teaching speaking skill is important for ESL/EFL language learners. On this basis, pronunciation is an essential skill that will contribute to students achieving goals of communication. (Garrigues, 1999) pointed that the foundation of effective spoken communication is good pronunciation. If speakers pronounce clearly and correctly, their audience interlocutor should be able to understand what they are trying to express easily. On the other hand, misunderstanding, in many cases, may occur when words are inaccurately pronounced or stressed.

The introduction of the audio-lingual approach in the late fifties and sixties shifted the main focus of attention in foreign language (FL) programs away from reading and writing towards listening and speaking. Its precursor, the so-called direct method, had also focused on the development of listening and speaking skills, but it was pedagogically unprincipled and inefficient. The audio-lingual method, guided by principles of behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics, adopted more disciplined procedures and techniques based mainly on systematic pattern-drilling (O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper, 1989). The value of the tape-recorder as an aid in developing listening skills was recognized very early on (Schmitt, 2006; Saricoban, 1999). By using a dual-track tape, tape-recorders were soon able to offer learners the chance to respond to verbal cues, and by means of rewinding facility, to check their responses against a correct response, thereby providing immediate feedback and reinforcement in accordance with a basic prescription of behaviorist theories of learning. From being a simple audio aid, the tape-recorder thus developed into a more complex, audio-lingual aid. A logical next step was the development of the language laboratory, which was essentially just a number of tape-recorders connected to and under the command of a central console (AL-Ansari and Wigzell (1996)).

Why To Use The Tape Recorder?

Assuming that a school has dedicated its elementary language courses to a genuine conversational approach, why should it have a language laboratory? (The term "language laboratory" is here assumed to be synonymous with "tape recorder") He thinks the best answer to this is an illustration from his own experience. In his conversational Spanish elementary courses he has continually been plagued by the presence of students with a background of from one to three years of high school Spanish. Invariably they have among the worst pronunciations in class, possibly excepting the football team which always seems to be present in the back row however, their pronunciation would be quite acceptable by

the usual standards of a grammar-reading type course such as they have had. Also their oral fluency superiority seems to be short lived, and their aural comprehension is normally abominable (Greib, 1973). The worst of it is that this particular ability appears nearly unimprovable. But after a lot of work with such students, he believes he figured out what is wrong with them for our purposes and some thing of how to remedy it by the way, these students are often quite good at reading Spanish and quoting rules of grammar, which is after all what they have really been trained for. It is obvious, when one stops to think of it, the most of our formal education is acquired through the eyes, principally in the form of written texts. This will not come as a shock to educational psychologists. Such a learning process develops what he will call a "visual orientation" in learning, then suddenly the student is thrown into a language course where he is expected to learn to handle the spoken form of a language, something he hasn't done much of since he started school, he is in especially great trouble if he has first studied the language in a "reading approach" course, and is accustomed to think of it as printed words (Obrecht, 1998).

This is precisely the point where my troubles arise what almost any beginning student does, but particularly the one described above, when he hears the teacher say something to him in Spanish, is to allow the sound waves to enter his ears, travel unimpeded through his brain till they arrive at his "mental type-writer," and then mentally type them out as letters (still untranslated) on the "screen" before his eyes, then as the words fall into their familiar shapes before him he reads them off and translates them in exactly the manner he has learned. Unfortunately, few mental type-writers can keep up with a sustained utterance, and the student's "page" is left with blanks (Zagel, 1994). He cannot go back and fill them, for the sound waves have ceased he has no memory of them since the sounds themselves were meaningless to him. Thus they find him misunderstanding again, or asking for a repetition that ought not be necessary. This is the obvious cause for the old familiar complaint that a student cannot understand because he cannot tell where one word stops and the next begins he just has to be conscious of a familiar printed word or he is helpless on anything but the most common utterances (Dunkel, 1991).

What is needed to remedy this situation is an intensive program to replace the student's "visual orientation" with an "aural orientation". There is no way under the sun to do this without constantly exposing the student to the spoken language (Obrecht, 1998). How to accomplish this? Well, after three or four hours of near constant talking in a classroom voice I find it most pleasant to be replaced by a machine the only alternative to using recordings, while still accomplishing our aim, is to hire additional

teachers to conduct laboratory sessions in person. This is decidedly false economy, and also eliminates the "private lesson" feeling of a session under the earphones (Greib, 1973).

Another reason he has observed for the comprehension difficulties of "reading course" graduates is the poor pronunciation mentioned above with a permanently present printed page to refer to the student need not rely on the sound of a word to make the necessary distinctions the phonetic contrast between Spanish and, for example, can be ignored when visual reference is possible, but in spoken Spanish it is necessary for the student to be aware of the phonemic character of this contrast and to be able to distinguish them readily if he has not been trained to do so, or even to be aware of the distinction in sound, he is helpless Too, if he has never been forced to produce Spanish *r*'s correctly in his own speech he will be unable to identify them in spoken Spanish delivered beyond his "typing" rate, he will probably misinterpret many of them as English *d* this has happened in my classes hundreds of times (Zagel, 1994).

How can such a fault be correct most efficiently and economically? By practice, practice, practice with the individual tape recorder (Obrecht, 1998).

Also, it is generally known that in acquiring a knowledge of a second language the student is actually memorizing at least the nucleus of an entire language effectively presented and valid memorizational drills and conversational material are much more quickly mastered and far better retained through the triple pronged attack on the visual, auditory and articulatory mechanisms afforded by the individual tape recorder in conjunction with printed materials and oral response than by one attack alone (Greib, 1973).

Audio technology such as the tape recorder has been generally shown to be as instructionally effective in conventional teaching. In addition, such technologies lend themselves to special situations. The telephone obviously allows distance education where students are unable to attend classes. In addition, it appears that the tape recorder allows learning while asleep. Although it is difficult to assess the validity of these sleep-learning studies, they point out that auditory media may have applications under conditions when conventional media are not feasible.

Foreign language learning lends itself naturally to the use of media. Linguists stress the primacy of speech over writing in language: children can listen and speak before they learn to read and write and all languages of the world are spoken, but not all have a writing system. Accordingly, foreign-language educators have been heavily involved in the use of audio equipment.

They welcomed the first audio device, the phonograph, and have immediately adopted other advances in audio technology such as magnetic tape and digital media. (Carter and Nunan, 2001).

Unfortunately, the history of the use of technology to teach languages has not been duly noted by historians of educational technology. Paul Saettler, in his definitive **The Evolution of American Educational Technology**, only makes passing references to foreign-language teaching, and language laboratories are granted merely one paragraph (p. 187).

It will be demonstrated that this disregard is startling in view of the extensive use and massive investment in instructional equipment by foreign-language educators. Moreover, it will be shown that the research that accompanied these commitments has not been appreciated by the larger educational technology community.

Early educational technology such as the radio, the telephone, the tape recorder, and the loudspeaker attracted the attention of researchers.

Lado (1957) compared the retention of factual materials presented over a loudspeaker system and directly by a speaker. Two groups totaling 449 students were rotated in the experiment. A pretest, a test immediately after the lesson, a test 1 day later, and one 20 days later were given. One group saw the speaker, and the other group heard him from another room.

The direct group performed better, but later tests showed that the means were not significantly different.

Kumbang (1998) compared the effectiveness of radio instruction and conventional teaching. Two intermediate school groups were match-paired by age, sex, and intelligence for this experiment. Pretests and posttests were given. Their results showed a superiority for the radio-taught classes.

Lu (2002), using phonographic recordings, conducted an experiment to compare the amount of information gained by students who listened and those who studied the same material in printed form. Time was equalized. A total of 418 students listened to the recordings; 426 students studied the printed material. All students involved took a pretest, a posttest, and a test 1 week after the experiment was completed. Separate t tests were used to compare means of the pretest and posttest and also the delayed test. According to Lu, the study of the printed material was superior to the method employing the recordings. However, a comparison in tests taken after a week showed little difference in methods employed. From this result, he concluded illogically that recordings make more of a lasting impression than printed materials.

Major (1987) investigated the motivational values of recordings. Using the same recordings and textbooks prepared for the earlier experiment, two groups of students were given access to supplementary

reading materials after one group had heard the recordings and the other had read the material. Motivation was measured by which group used more supplementary reading materials. A total of 193 students used the recording, and 187 used the textbook presentation. Major's study showed no difference between the groups in terms of motivation to use supplementary reading material.

Kriedler (1989) investigated whether there was a difference in memory and comprehension between two groups of students in which one group sees and hears the speaker and another group only hears him. In the visual group were 128 students, and 120 were in the audio group. Both groups were in the same lecture room separated by a large, heavy curtain. Loudspeakers were used, and the lecture was given simultaneously to both groups. After the lecture, both groups took the same test. Both groups had been told that grades would not be counted.

Kramer and Lewis reported that the mean of the visual group was higher than that of the audio group and that the visual group had a wider range. They concluded that the speaker's visible action somehow contributed to the ability to understand and remember the ideas in the lecture.

Krashen (1982) used a phonograph record to determine if a habit could be broken by suggestion while the subjects were asleep. At a summer camp, three, small groups of young boys, all fingernail biters, were chosen for the study. The experimental group heard the suggestion to stop biting nails played 300 times a night over a period of a month and a half. The control groups received no auditory messages. Krashen reports that, at the end of the experiment, 40% of the experimental group had stopped nail biting, whereas none in the control groups had.

Similarly, a series of research studies with tape recorders attempted to determine whether or not students could be taught while they were sleeping. (Bell, 1996) selected 30 people who had no knowledge of Chinese. Pretests and posttests were given. A tape recorder with a pillow microphone and an automatic timer switch was used for one-half hour during the night. Matched Chinese words with English words were given.

Three groups were chosen: group 1 heard Chinese words and true English equivalents, group 2 heard Chinese words with false English equivalents, and group 3 heard music only.

There were several weaknesses in the design, including the fact that the students were not observed at night. Fox and Bell reported that the following morning the group that had the true translations learned the same list much more quickly than the other two groups, with the false translation group taking the longest. The authors conclude that learning can occur during sleep.

Burrill (1985) found that the use of tape recorders to teach spelling improved performance from 50 to 100%. The published description of this study was incomplete. However, as a result of this report, other studies were conducted on the effectiveness of tape recording used with spelling.

Brown (1994) reported a 3-year experimental comparison of a tape teaching program with conventional instruction at an Omaha, Nebraska, junior high school. Two areas were chosen to study the effectiveness of tape recording: spelling and conversational Spanish. Oral and written tests were used. Results of findings included the assertion that tape instruction was superior to conventional instruction when the criterion was in the number of words correctly spelled. Both methods were similar with respect to the recognition of words misspelled. Spanish classes taught, by a non-Spanish teacher using Spanish tapes, and classes taught by a Spanish teacher were similar in achievement scores. The following conclusions were made: (a) Tape recording is an effective method for teaching conversational Spanish to seventh-graders; (b) regular classroom teachers can effectively teach conversational Spanish by means of tape prepared by Spanish specialists; (c) students can learn to spell as effectively with a tape as with conventional classroom procedures; (d) with proper orientation, large groups can be taught spelling effectively; and (e) teaching with tapes produced no adverse effect on attitudes toward the subject.

Allwright (2005) studied the effectiveness of tape recorded lectures in teaching a college-level education class. Thirty-six students were divided into 18 matched pairs. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant difference between assorted variables. One group was a conventional lecture discussion; the other group was taught by tape-recorded lectures with student-led discussions. This experiment continued over one semester. Pretests in achievement and a test to measure student opinion were given. Both tests were repeated at the completion of the course. Allwright reports that both groups had increased performance on the achievement tests; there was no significant difference between them. There was no significant difference on reactions to the courses. However, the opinions of the tape-lecture sections were generally favorable towards the technique.

In a similar study, (Spada, 1997) provided taped lectures, tape recorders, and printed notes to 209 college students. Another 408 students attended regular lectures. Overall, there was no significant difference, but students in the lowest quartile showed an advantage in the tape condition. Also the dropout rate was lower with the students using tape.

As a result of the interest in taped instruction, the National Center for Audio Tapes (NCAT) was established in 1955 and was known

popularly as the National Tape Repository (Oxford, 1990). The repository originated at Kent State University and by 1960 housed approximately 2,000 titles. The NCAT was moved to the University of Colorado in 1960 because of the facilities for high-speed duplication that had been established. A survey of tape duplication facilities by NCAT in 1965 determined that of 350 institutions responding, 223 had tape-duplication libraries. The majority were in institutions of higher learning. In 1973 the NCAT had over 14,000 titles and duplicated more than 17,000 tapes.

In addition to the tape recorder, there was interest in the telephone as an instructional medium. (Canale, Swain, 1980) conducted a study concerning the relative effectiveness of teaching via the telephone. Two matched groups of 10 were selected. One group was taught elementary psychology in the traditional manner, the other by telephone alone. No text was used, but a list of suggested readings was furnished. The telephone group was connected to a system in which all participants could speak to each other. Gains in knowledge were found in both groups, and there was no significant difference in the gain between the two classes. Although there was evidence of a novelty effect, the method appeared practical. (Dauer, 1993) summarized the limited research on telephone teaching and concluded, "... the research done on the effectiveness of teleteaching indicates that teleteaching is an economical and effective tool" (p. 483).

L'eon (1962) and Peterson (1974) have documented the early use of audio recordings by foreign-language educators since the invention of the phonograph by Thomas Edison in 1877. By 1893 there were commercial record sets available for Spanish and English as a foreign language. The phonograph was used in regular classes and for self-study at home, but to what extent is difficult to ascertain. In their 340-page annotated bibliography of "modern" language methodology (the references commence in 1880s), (Avery and Ehrlich, 1992) include only nine entries concerning the phonograph. Three of these are listings of recorded courses; none of the six articles is a controlled study of the merit of the phonograph. The 491-page Bagster-Collins et al. volume (1930) contains no mention of the phonograph.

According to a contemporary (Keating, 1936), initial use of the phonograph and other devices such as the stereopticon (an early slide projector) was haphazard, and interest waned because there was "no real absorption of modern inventions into the teaching program" (p. 678). The Depression may have prohibited a wider use of the phonograph in the 1930s. A definite discouragement to its use was the Carnegie-funded Coleman report of 1929, which stated that the reading skill should be emphasized (Parker, 1961). Nevertheless, it should be noted that the decade saw much interest in the use of radio for foreign language

instruction. From October 1935 (volume 20) through December 1946 (volume 30), the **Modern Language Journal** had a radio “department.”

It is not until 1908 that there is any evidence of a laboratory arrangement of phonographic equipment (L’eon, 1962). By this is meant a dedicated facility for foreign-language study. This lab was at the University of Grenoble in France. An American, Frank C. Chalfant, who studied there in the summer of 1909, appears to have been the one who brought the idea back to this country.

He installed a “phonetics laboratory” at Washington State College in Pullman during the 1911–1912 academic years. Pictures of this installation in use show students listening via networked earphones. This lab also had a phonograph-recording machine so that students could compare their pronunciation with the native-speaker models.

Near the time that Chalfant established his phonetics laboratory, the U.S. Military and Naval Academy set aside rooms for listening to foreign-language records (Clarke, 1918). Another early facility was set up at the University of Utah in 1919 by Ralph Waltz (1930). He moved to Ohio State and built another lab about which he published several articles (Waltz, 1930 , 1932). Waltz is usually credited with coining the term **language laboratory** in 1930 (Hocking, 1967). In fact, Chalfant had used it synonymously with phonetics laboratory as early as 1916 in the Washington State College yearbook, the **Chinook**, and probably in the regional foreign-language education circles of which he was a leader. In any event, it appears that the preferred term until after WWII was “phonetics laboratory.” That is what Middlebury College called the lab it installed in 1928 (Marty, 1956).

Also in use was “language studio” (Eddy, 1944) and “conversation laboratory” (Bottke, 1944;. Whitehouse, 1945) used the terms “workshop” and “language laboratory” together for the lab at Birmingham-Southern College. (Bontempo, 1946) also used “workshop” to describe the elaborate foreign language training program he created at the College of the City of New York in 1940. The use of audio-visual equipment was part of the “implementation (p. 325) phase. The “language discoth`eque” described by (Gaudin, 1946) was a carefully selected set of records used in class and presumably in some kind of lab because she went on to publish several articles about labs in the next few years.

The major technical development of note during the decade was the audiocassette (Dodge, 1968). The advantages of cassettes were a lower price and that smaller, lighter machines could play it. However, it did have the drawbacks of lower fidelity and greater difficulty of editing by cutting and splicing. The quality of sound was eventually ameliorated, and the editing problem was not sufficient to prevent the cassette from replacing reel tape in language labs in the 1970s. Machines with a repeat

or skip-back function came on the scene at this time as well. This feature permitted students to easily replay a tape segment, and thus was well suited to dictations and audio-lingual listen-and-repeat drills. The cassette **Canon Repeat-Corder L** was first advertised in the **NALLD Journal** in the October 1970 issue. (Aikens and Ross, 1977) wrote an article in the same journal describing a reel-to-reel machine they fabricated. By the end of the decade, the major manufacturers, such as Sony and Tandberg, were producing machines with skip-back capability.

Another technical advance was the speech compressor– expander. This device allowed a recording to be sped up (compressed) or slowed down (expanded). Articles on this technology were numerous in the general educational literature from the start of the decade. (Kumbang,1998), a professor of Russian, advocated its use. Paradoxically, it was not until 1978 that anything on speech compression appeared in the **NALLD Journal** (Harvey, 1978). One would have expected a greater enthusiasm for this feature among language laboratory professionals.

The ability to slow down a tape would seem to be a boon to students struggling with a difficult passage. Moreover, variable speed technology was not unknown in foreign-language being treated as “guinea pigs on whom pet ideas are tried out in the lab” and asked whether “experimentation has gotten a bit out of hand” (1962, p. 268).

The use of technology in language learning and teaching appeared ready to increase because of several developments. New monies for the use of technology in foreign language instruction appeared. In 1990 the U.S. Department of Education funded the first National Foreign Language Resource Centers. Two centers, the University of Hawaii and San Diego State University, began offering workshops on the use of technology. With initial funding from IBM, the FLAME (Foreign Language Applications in Multimedia Environment) project was begun at the University of Michigan in 1990. The success of **French in Action** in the late 1980s led to a similar video program for Spanish, **Destinos**, (1992). It benefited from Annenberg/CPB funding as did its predecessor and **Fokus Deutsch**, for (German, 1999). The amount of computer courseware grew steadily. Publishers began packaging textbook-specific software as standard components along with audio and video materials. With the explosive rise of the World Wide Web from 1993, companion web sites also became commonplace and many “third party” web sites concerning language learning started springing up.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Spoken skills form the core stone of the language proficiency. Therefore they are given much attention, trying to develop all methods of

teaching in order to graduate knowledgeable learners (Revell, 1983). The Ministry of Education puts much attention on spoken skills from the early stages of teaching English in Jordan. Despite the fact that the Ministry of Education puts much attention on spoken skills specifically pronunciation, students still complain from their low level of understanding and producing correct utterances (Al-Irsan, 1992). It is generally observed that most sophomore English language students despite the fact that they had studied more than (50) credit hours, they still complain of their low level in producing correct sounds and words (Hoffman, 1996). As a result of this deterioration the researcher intends to study the effect of using tape recorder on English language students' pronunciation at Mu'tah University.

1.3 Purpose of the study

This study aimed at identifying if there is any effect of using tape-recorder on the second year English language students' achievement at Mu'tah university during the second semester 2009/2010.

1.4 Questions of the study

This study attempted to answer the following questions:

- 1- Are there any statistically significant differences ($\alpha=0, 05$) between the achievement of Mu'tah university students taught English pronunciation due to the method of teaching? (Using tape recorder and the traditional method).
- 2- Are there any statistically significant differences ($\alpha=0, 05$) between the achievement of Mu'tah university students taught English pronunciation due to the gender? (Male or female)

1.5 Significance of the Study

It is common that Jordanian students have high tendency to encounter pronunciation difficulties when reading aloud or speaking English. That is because the sound system of the Arabic language is totally different from English. According to the best knowledge of the researcher, there are few studies about the effect of using tape recorder on students' achievement in pronunciation.

Although there are many methods and teaching materials to improve the pronunciation, using tape recorder appears to be of the most promising ways to solve this problem. Tape-recorder is widely used in the language classroom. It is easy to use tape-recorders for practicing because users can practice English anywhere and at anytime. Some researchers used it to improve students' listening, reading, grammar and vocabulary (Hoffman, 1996; Kumbang, 1998). Through an extensive review of related literature, no studies have tackled to investigate the effect of using

tape-recorder on a particular pronunciation problem. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the effect of using the tape-recorder on the achievement of EFL students in Pronunciation. This study is going to be as a guide for the curricula designers in order to recommend using tape recorders efficiently in teaching EFL as well as it recommends teachers to focus on using Tape recorders in their teaching EFL classrooms.

1.6 Definition of operational terms

The following terms had the associated meaning in this study:

Tape- recorder: A mechanical device for recording on magnetic tape and usually for playing back the recorded material, (Electronics) an electrical device used for recording sounds on magnetic tape and usually also for reproducing them, consisting of a tape deck

Second year EFL University students (sophomore): Students who had completed the pre-requisites of the pronunciation courses successfully.

Pronunciation: Making sounds of speech in its two forms written or spoken (Firth, 1992). In this study, it is the students' pronunciation of the words and texts that are prepared by the researcher.

Achievement: The results of the students on the test that was prepared by the researcher.

Traditional way: it is the teacher's use of the textbook.

1.7 Limitations of the study

The study is limited to the following:

The sample of the study: the sample consists of all sophomore English language and literature students who are registered in the pronunciation course whom number is (120) male and female students during the second semester 2009/2010.

Chapter Two

Review of related literature and theoretical framework

This chapter is divided into two parts; theoretical framework and review of related literature.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

There appears to have been very little attempt to provide an empirical justification for the use of the phonograph and phonetics laboratories before World War II. This is not entirely surprising, given that before the 1960s very few foreign-language scholars had training in quantitative experimental techniques: They were humanists schooled in literary and philological research methods. There are, however, accounts of problems with the use of phonographs and phonetics labs which can perhaps be classified as observational research. These observations will be noted, for they raise issues that were to be examined more rigorously later. Moreover, these records demonstrate that there was some notion of accountability among those who used early audio resources. That is, the phonograph and phonetics labs were not accepted and used uncritically. Based on his “long experimentation,” (Clarke, 1918, p. 120) provided the first guidelines to appear in the scholarly literature on the proper use of the phonograph in teaching foreign languages. He granted that some teachers found the “mechanism” (p. 122) troublesome, time-consuming, and distracting.

To this he countered that it afforded learners the opportunity to hear consistent native-speaker models that never suffered fatigue. He concluded that “the true success of the speech record is in teaching pronunciation and that nothing else should be expected of it” (p. 120). The emphasis on pronunciation training certainly became the hallmark of the phonetics laboratories.

Waltz, the founder of the lab at Ohio State University, also cited the benefit of having tireless native-speaker models to imitate. By having the “constant control sounding in his ears” (p. 29), the student could exclude the imperfect approximations of his peers and gain confidence in his own speaking ability. However, a colleague of Waltz, Emma Schenk, complained that the earphones did not adequately keep out others’ voices (1930).

In addition, she deplored the poor audio quality and the lack of supervision in the Ohio State lab. She worried that students would “cultivate errors” (p. 30). She also noted much cheating on time slips and many students who were not on task while in the lab. (Levin, 1931) was sympathetic to labs and sought to offer constructive criticism of their use.

He stressed the need for immediate feedback so as to avoid the problem Schenk had feared, namely, the development of bad speech habits. Gullette (1932) showed that this fear was justified. He noted with consternation that many students working alone in the lab reverted back to the poor pronunciation practices that earlier had been eradicated in class drill sessions. He stressed that imitation was not sufficient; what was needed was ear training such as was done in music classes. This would allow for self-diagnosis and correction.

Waltz's report (1932) of two studies he consulted on, but did not conduct himself, is the first record of an attempt to establish empirically the phonetic/language laboratory's effectiveness. It is ironic, in view of the identification of the language laboratory with foreign languages, that neither investigation involved their teaching! The first experiment had to do with the teaching of the Irish accent; the second was concerned with correct English diction.

Both studies can be faulted for the low number of subjects (20 and 24), the apparent nonrandom assignment of subjects to treatments, and the lack of statistical analysis beyond a comparison of group means. Nevertheless, Waltz did note that the groups were equivalent by using scores on standardized tests of intelligence, hearing, and pitch discrimination. In the first study, the lab group's mean was 10.1 (out of a possible 20 points). The control group's mean was 8.04. In the second study, both the lab and nonlab groups showed similar gains. Waltz argued that the comparable improvement was actually evidence in favor of the efficiency of the lab: Class and instructor time was saved by having students work independently in the lab.

2.2 The Related Literature Review

During the 1961–62 school year, (Keating, 1963) conducted a study of the use of the language laboratory in French classes in New York City high schools. He cited Allen's study (1960) as the "only exception" (he was evidently unaware of the Brushwood & Polmantier study) to the rule that "the literature abounds with articles that describe the benefits of using language laboratories" but "contains virtually no reports upon the empirical validation" (p. 8) of them.

He called Allen's results "quite interesting" but noted a possible Hawthorne effect, which he felt "severely compromised" (p. 8) them. Keating knew of the research being simultaneously conducted in New York City by Lorge (to be described later).

Keating's was a large-scale study involving approximately 5,000 subjects in 21 school districts. Schools were divided between laboratory and nonlaboratory users based on a questionnaire filled out by each district's foreign-language coordinator.

Lorge (1964) conducted two experiments in New York City high schools. The first took place during the 1961–62 school year, and the second was done the following year. Thus, the first study coincided with Keating's investigation. Whether there was any overlap of subjects between the two studies is unknown, but could hardly be problematic given that only two schools were involved in Lorge's first inquiry; Keating's entailed 21 districts.

Lorge described the purpose of her study thus: The question was whether the teacher improves the teaching-learning situation by using the laboratory as a teaching aid. The research was intended not to give the laboratory a passing or failing mark—if it passes, use it; if it fails, rip it out—but rather to determine in which areas it had proved to be successful, and how its use could be made more effective. (p. 409)

Young and Choquette's NDEA-sponsored study (1965) was a series of seven experiments that sought to determine whether any of four language laboratory equipment configurations made a difference in the subjects' abilities to self-monitor their pronunciation.

The systems were characterized by the feedback options they presented: (1) passive, (2) active, (3) long-delayed comparison, and (4) short-delayed comparison. The first three systems were standard options for language laboratory installations at the time. An apparatus for the fourth condition was specially fashioned for the study by the investigators. In the passive arrangement, the subjects repeated after taped prompts, but they could not clearly hear their responses because the headsets muffled their voices. In the active arrangement, subjects could hear their responses amplified through their headsets as they spoke.

In the third option, subjects could record their answers for later comparison. In the fourth setup, the students could hear their recorded response within 1.5 seconds of making them. Subjects in the active feedback configuration were found to have slightly superior pronunciation than subjects in the other arrangements.

However, the authors qualified this finding on several grounds. Of note was the lower sound quality of the fabricated equipment used in the short-delay condition. The authors admitted that this hampered a true comparison with the other three conditions.

Buka, Freeman, and Locke (1962) conducted experiments that sought to establish psychoacoustic parameters for language laboratory equipment. The first study determined that a high-frequency cutoff of less than 7,300 cps hindered subjects (high school students) from perceiving certain phonemic contrasts in German and French. The second study found that a low-frequency cutoff of 500 cps caused subjects (again high school students) to make significantly more errors in German phoneme discrimination than a 50-cps cutoff. However, no significant differences

were found between these two levels for French phoneme discrimination. It was also found that consonant distinctions were more affected than vowel distinctions by the degradation of sound quality brought on by filtering.

Benathy and Jordan (1969) reported on a post hoc comparison of achievement scores in Bulgarian courses at the Defense Language Institute. The scores of 13 classes (87 students) that completed the course between August 1959 and September 1963 were compared to the scores of 15 classes (103 students) that finished between November 1963 and July 1967. The difference between these classes was the introduction in the fall of 1963 of the Classroom Laboratory Instructional System (CLIS): CLIS is a designed interaction of live instruction and a set of different kinds of learning experiences that make use of prepared and recorded instructional materials, delivered through the electronic media (p. 473).

The Chomei and Houlihan (1970) study compared three language laboratory systems: instant playback, long-delay playback, and audio-active. The instant playback option allowed the subjects to have their recorded response to the program stimulus echoed back within half a second. The long-delay group had to rewind the tape to hear their recordings. The audio-active group did not record their responses. It can thus be seen that this study closely resembled what had been done by (Young and Choquette, 1965), but, surprisingly, this earlier work was not cited. The subjects in the Chomei and Houlihan investigation were 140 Japanese 10th-graders, who were all taught by the same instructor. It was found that the instant-playback group performed significantly better than the other groups on one out of five translation tests and on four out of five speaking tests that had been specially created for the experiment.

Sisson (1970) did a study that was sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education. Its aim was to settle the controversy among language educators as to the benefit (or lack thereof) of delayed comparison on students' ability to perceive and produce the phonemes of another language. Thus, this study shared the same goal as the work of (Young and Choquette, 1965) and (Chomei and Houlihan, 1970). That Sisson did not cite the latter is understandable, since it was contemporary to his own. What is surprising is that he ignored the former, yet did cite 39 other articles. In this oversight he followed Chomei and Houlihan, as pointed out before. Why a major study published in a leading journal was so ignored is an unanswered question in the record.

Morin (1971) compared three types of laboratory equipment: (1) an instructor-supervised lab with listening and recording functions, (2) a cassette recorder with "minimal supervision" (p. 65), and (3) an audio-active lab with no recording capability. At the outset 80 students were

given the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) and the LA form of the MLA Cooperative speaking test as pretests. The students were then assigned at random to 8 classes which contained 10 students each.

This resulted in two classes per treatment condition (there was also a control group). The **Voix et Images de France** textbook and tapes were used. After three days of instruction, the classes were further divided into “fast” and “slow” groups. What was meant by these terms and the basis for assignment to groups is not explained. Nor is there mention of teacher assignment. A total of 16 groups/cells of 5 students each resulted. After a total of 120 hours of instruction over a three-week period, Form LB of the MLA Cooperative test was administered. The results were analyzed by ANCOVA, although which of the pretests was used for the covariant was not given. No significant differences were found. Morin concluded that “inexpensive equipment produces results comparable to more sophisticated ones” and then suggested that “further study should bear mainly on improving ways and means of utilizing present equipment rather than on equipment proper” (p. 67). The conclusions of this study are suspect because of the low N and the apparent lack of control for teacher effect.

Smith (1980) conducted a study to determine whether the slowing down of recorded material had a beneficial effect on listening comprehension. The reader will recall from the *History* section that during the 1960s equipment became available which was capable of slowing down (expanding) or speeding up (compressing) recordings without distortion. Smith claimed that his search of the literature turned up no reference to studies addressing the specific application of this technology to foreign language instruction. This claim was incorrect: (Waltz, 1932) listed two such studies which predated Smith’s by several years and three that were done at about the same time as Smith’s (i.e., the late 1970s). However, in fairness, it should be pointed out that Driscoll was also guilty of oversight; he omitted Smith’s study even though it was in the same outlet, the **NALLD Journal**, as his own article.

Schacter and Fagnano (1999) presented findings from several meta-analyses indicating that computer- based instruction moderately improved student learning.

Kulik (cited in Kosakowski 1998) presented evidence that using educational technology for drill and practice of basic skills could be highly effective, and Marty(1956) concluded that students using computer-based integrated learning systems generally did somewhat better than expected.

Stratham and Torell (1996) reviewed 10 meta-analyses on the effectiveness of technology. Their findings indicated that: 1 when properly implemented, computer technology had a significant effect on

student achievement, as measured by test scores across subject areas and with students at all levels.

When used appropriately, computer technology stimulated increased teacher student interaction and encouraged cooperative learning, collaboration, problem solving, and student inquiry skills.

Students from computer-rich classrooms demonstrated better behavior and had lower absentee and drop-out rates than students from classrooms lacking computers.

Computer-based teaching was especially effective among populations of at-risk students.

Sivin-Kachala et al. (2000) analyzed 219 recent research studies to assess the effect of computer technology on learning and achievement across all learning domains and all ages. In addition to positive effects on achievement in major subject areas, they found effective use of technology fostered the development of more positive student attitudes toward themselves and toward learning.

Studies on particular types of technology use are still being conducted. For example, a recent study of the impact of electronic field trips, provided for seventh and eighth graders by Maryland Public Television and the Johns Hopkins University Center for Technology in Education, found participating students exhibited significantly higher levels of knowledge on three social studies units than students who had not participated. Participating students also demonstrated greater improvement on reading comprehension skills.

Chapter Three

Design and Methodology

This chapter deals with procedures, study variables, population, sample, instrument, and statistical analysis that were used in the study.

3.1 Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of all the sophomore English language and literature. Students whose number was (485) male and female students during the second semester 2009\2010.

3.2 Sample of the Study

The sample of the study consisted of all sophomore English language and literature students who are registered in the pronunciation course whose number was (120) male and female students which was selected intentionally during the second semester 2009\2010.

3.3 Instruments of the study

1. GPA (general point average) was used to check groups' equivalence.
2. Post-test: This was used to measure students' achievement after the treatment; it consisted of thirty eight questions about some passages of various topics.

3.3.1 Reliability of the instruments

The researcher used the test re-test technique with a pilot group, which was instructed by Dr. Bashaar Al- Rashdan, Associate professor of the English Department, Mu'tah University. At the beginning of the treatment for two weeks, they were taught four passages and they sat for a test, then, after one month they sat for the same test again. The reliability of the test was concluded using correlation coefficient and found to be 0.87. The researcher considered this value acceptable for the purposes of the study.

3.3.2 Validity of the instruments

To guarantee and judge the content validity of the test, it was given to a jury of specialists in TEFL instructors; two in TEFL, two specialized in applied linguistics, two EFL supervisors, two native speakers and two specialized in measurement and evaluation. They were asked to add, omit or make any amendment on the items of the test. Upon the jury's comments and suggestion, ambiguous and irrelevant items were either omitted or modified. The first draft which consisted of (60) items were reduced to (38) items in the final draft. (Appendix 1).

3.3.3 Instructional Material

The researcher chose four passages which were taught at the first stage to a pilot study consists of (20) students using the traditional method and let them set for a pre- test to check their equivalence, then, she chose ten suitable passages with various topics which was later taught to the experimental students using the tape-recorder and again after the treatment students sat for a test to check their achievement. The students of the traditional group were taught the same ten passages using the traditional approach.

3.4 Procedures of the study

All participants in the study were enrolled in two sections. The same instructor taught both sections to ensure uniformity of instruction. During lesson one, the course requirements and objectives were explained to the students. This discussion was the same in both sections, with one exception. In the experimental Section (group), students were taught some specific passages using tape-recorder, and then were asked to pronounce some selected words, and then they were asked either to write words in transcribed language or taped. In control section (group) students were taught some specific passages orally by the instructor but without using tape-recorder, i.e. using the traditional way and then they were asked to write these words in transcribed language or pronounce it orally. Students in experimental group were unaware of the teaching practices employed in the control group.

During the subsequent 8 weekly lessons (50 minutes each) of the course, the instructor taught the material to both sections in different manner. Activities differed between the groups during the lessons in that the experimental group students were taught using tape-recorder, whereas the control group students were taught using the traditional way. The learning objectives measured during the lessons were the same in both sections.

During the last lesson, students in both sections, the experimental and the control, were given the same teacher created, criterion-referenced final examination.

3.5 Variables of the study

The independent variables:

- 1- The teaching strategies (using tape-recorder and traditional way).
- 2- Gender; male and female

The dependent variable: English language students' pronunciation.

3.6 Data Analysis

To answer the questions of the study, descriptive methods (means and standard deviation) were used for pre and post tests for English language pronunciation test to the experimental and control groups.

(Two-Way ANOVA) analysis of variance was used to make a comparison between the control and the experimental group and gender variable (male and female).

Chapter Four

Findings and discussions of the results of the study

This study aimed at investigating the effect of using tape-recorder on the second year English language students' achievement at Mu'tah University during the second semester 2009/2010. It was an attempt towards finding out if there were any significant differences between the scores of the experimental and those of the control group, which may be attributed to the treatment. It also attempted to see whether there were any significant differences in the achievement of the experimental group attributed to gender. This chapter presents the findings of the statistical analysis of the data gathered to answer the questions of the study.

The data were collected through a pretest treatment-posttest design for non equivalent groups and analyzed via the statistical package SPSS.

To determine if there is a statistically significant difference between the male and the female groups, a t-test for independent samples was conducted. Table 1 shows the results.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations of the Achievement of Male and Female Groups on the Pretest.

Gender	N	Mean	SD	T	Sig.
Male	60	65.48%	11.49	2.023	0.079
Female	60	69.40%	9.64		

Table 1 indicates that the difference between males and females is not statistically significant at $\alpha=0.05$. Thus, since the difference was not significant, the two groups were assumed equivalent and the sample was divided into two groups, an experimental and a control group. The experimental group consisted of (30) male students and (30) female students. The same is true for the control group.

To determine if the two groups are equivalent in their pronunciation ability, a pretest was conducted and Table 2 presents the results.

Table 2
T-Test Results of the Experimental and the Control Groups on the Pretest.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Sig.
Control	60	67.18%	11.66	0.262	0.075
Experimental	60	67.70%	9.82		

Table 3
Summary of the Two-way Analysis of Variance of the Achievement
of the control and the Experimental Groups

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Means of Squares	F	Sig.
Posttest	7834.111	1	7834.111	267.558	0.000
Group	408.907	1	408.907	13.965	0.000
Sex	12.027	1	12.027	0.411	0.523
Group*sex					
Error	3367.204	115	29.280		
Corrected total	16987.167	118			

Table 3 shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the control group on the posttest, the experimental group was significantly better than that of the control group.

To sum up, the researcher believes that the difference in the achievement of the second year English language students was attributed to the using of tape-recorder. The experimental group subjects managed to significantly improve the pronunciation ability they already have in a period of 12 weeks. The improvement achieved by the control group subjects, however, was not statistically significant. By comparing the results achieved by the two groups, the researcher reached the conclusion that the improvement achieved by the experimental group may have been attributed to the way she rendered instruction; using tape-recorder.

As a result of this experience, the researcher concluded that students were more engaged in learning when they were given a chance to listen to the native speakers of English. The researcher believes that with more coaching and practice with listening to native speakers and more training by using tape-recorder, students will eventually become more comfortable pronouncing language. It is also clear that using tape-recorder is effective in engaging students over a class time especially if students are monitored carefully.

Furthermore, using tape-recorder is a powerful tool with which students can acquire the target language in a low anxiety setting and interesting, rich and comprehensive input. Previous research shed light on the deep impact of using tape-recorder on EFL students' pronunciation.

4.1 Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of using tape-recorder on the second year English language students' achievement at Mu'tah University during the second semester 2009/2010. To achieve the purpose of the study, a pre/post-test comprehension test with

pronunciation components was constructed to measure students' achievement in pronunciation. The sample of the study consisted of all (120) sophomore English language and literature students who registered in the pronunciation course whom number was (120) male and female students which was selected intentionally during the second semester 2009\2010.

The subjects of the study were distributed into two groups. The experimental group was taught pronunciation by using the tape-recorder while the control group was taught pronunciation by traditional method. The subjects were (30) male students for the experimental group and (30) male students for the control group, while the female students for the experimental and control group were (30) and (30) respectively, those subjects were distributed into two purposefully selected sections at Mu'tah University.

Descriptive statistical methods were used (means and standard deviation) for pre and post tests for the pronunciation test to experimental and control groups. Comparison statistical methods were used (Two Way ANOVA) analysis of variance to make a comparison between the control and the experimental group and the gender variable (male and female).

The findings of the study indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the post test between the control group and the experimental group in favor of the experimental group, and there was a statistically significant difference in the students' achievement due to gender in favor of females.

The researcher proposed some recommendations to enhance the effect of using tape-recorder on students' pronunciation such as conducting further researches on other population and for a longer time.

4.2 Recommendations

The following are recommendations for research:

If this study is to be replicated to bring further significance, some changes should be made

1. Perform the experiment over a longer period of time so that students have adequate time to shake off current habits of traditional practice on pronunciation and become more familiar with the using of tape-recorder.
2. Conducting other studies taking into account to investigate the effect of using tape-recorder on other language skills such as listening.
3. Conducting other studies on other universities in addition to Mu'ta University so that more students of different levels may be included to make generalizations more valid.

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Appendix (I)
The instrument of the study

Q1: What is the difference in meaning between the following pairs of utterances?

1.a. didn't you enjoy it

b. didn't you enjoy it

2.a. he didn't get one credit

b. he didn't get one credit

3.a. a pretty little house

b. a pretty little house

4.a. I thought it would rain

b. I thought it would rain

5.a. That's my younger brother peter

b. That's my younger brother peter

6.a. This is a man's store

b. This is a man's store

7.a. I thought he was married

b. I thought he was married

8.a. they don't live right here

b. they don't live right here

Q2: Read and Punctuate the following utterances as the meaning between brackets dictates.

1. Good morning (Greeting)

2. Don't be a stupid idiot (strong command)

3. It's cold today / isn't it (Forcing the answer yes)

4. He's handsome (reservation)

5. You can't possibly do that (grumble)

-
6. Don't make me angry (request)
 7. Why did you change your mind (business-like)
 8. What a very pretty dress (strong exclamation)
 9. What a very good film, wasn't it (Forcing the answer yes)
 10. He's generous (reservation)

Q3: Transcribe the following words.

1. Romanticism
2. Interrogative
3. Strategically
4. Momentary
5. Demonstrative
6. Personal
7. Macdonald
8. Purchasable
9. Sabotage
10. Prepossessing
11. Mediterranean
12. Probability
13. Preparatory
14. Paradigm
15. Photography
16. Telephonist
17. Political
18. Naturalism
19. Mustachio
20. Cigarette
